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ABSTRACT

The first of the four papers in this symposium, "The History of Human Resource Development in Taiwan from 1949 to 1999" (Christine M. Kuo, Gary N. McLean) finds that, contrary to the belief of most Taiwanese scholars that HRD (human resource development) in Taiwan is a new field, the roots of HRD in that country originated in the 1950s. It explains three functions and seven patterns of the Taiwanese HRD system. "Expatriate Development for the Asia-Pacific Region: A Comparative Analysis of Expatriates from Five Countries across Three Continents" (AAhad M. Osman-Gani) describes a study of key international HRD issues, specifically relating to training and development of expatriates from five countries representing Singapore, Japan, Korea, Germany, and the United States. "Development of a Framework for Emerging Asian MNCs [Multinational Corporations] and a Model for Promising Local Enterprises to Migrate onto the 'MNC Curve': An International HRD Perspective" (Gerald Z. D. Huang) looks at the evolution of the global economy and the impact of changes brought about by technology, communication, and education. It also surveys the different approaches to management development adopted by U.S., European, and Japanese MNCs. It suggests that, if corporations are to survive the global wave, a different trajectory is needed--one that allows organizational flexibility, renewal, global integration, and national responsiveness. "The Framework and Practices of Cross-Cultural Training of Taiwanese Corporations" (Hsinyi Chen, Menling Wu) reports that nearly one-third of the Taiwanese high-technology corporations have cross-cultural training programs, mostly less than 3 days in length, using an information-giving approach. (KC)

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15 **HRD Issues in Asia**

Chair: Valeria Stokes, Acco International, Inc., Global 100 Member

15 - 1 The History of Human Resource Development in Taiwan from 1949 to 1999

Christine M. Kuo, University of Minnesota

Gary N. McLean, University of Minnesota

15 - 2 Expatriate Development for the Asia-Pacific Region: A Comparative Analysis of Expatriates from Five Countries Across Three Continents

AAhad M. Osman-Gani, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

15 - 3 Development of a Framework for Emerging Asian MNC and a Model for Promising Local Enterprises To Migrate onto the 'MNC Curve': An International HRD Prospective

Gerald Z. D. Huang, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

15 - 4 The Framework and Practices of Cross-cultural Training in Taiwanese Corporations

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The History of Human Resource Development in Taiwan from 1949 to 1999

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This paper traces the history of HRD strategies and policies adopted in Taiwan since 1949. Contrary to the general belief of most Taiwanese scholars that HRD in Taiwan is a new field, this paper points out that the roots of HRD in Taiwan originated in the 1950s. This paper further posits three functions that the HRD system serves, seven patterns drawn from the evolution of HRD, and an HRD definition that is derived from the patterns and functions of HRD in Taiwan. Extent literature is relied on for the information presented.

Keyword: HRD in Taiwan (Republic of China), International HRD

Taiwan is one of the world's most densely populated countries. According to census figures (GIO, 1997), the population was over 21.4 million as of December 1996. Of these, about 9.3 million are classified as human resources; that is, they are over 15 years old and have the ability to work. Approximately 6.26 million are paid workers, as opposed to those who are self-employed or have some other working status. There are about 5.7 million males and 3.6 million females. In addition, 25-49 year olds are about 70% of the total labor force.

A low unemployment rate (2.81% in 1997) (CEPD, 1997) has been recognized worldwide as one of Taiwan's great achievements. In recent years, a shortage of labor has become a major concern. The number of skilled workers, though increasing dramatically, is unable to keep pace with demand (Hardee & Johns, 1988). The diverse needs and problems of such a large population and work force on this small island are the main challenges faced by Taiwan. Developing these human resources has been a main issue. Taiwan has built a solid foundation of labor-intensive industry by using its abundant and relatively less expensive labor force efficiently. Human resources have been critical in enabling Taiwan to succeed economically.

Problem Statement

The question to be answered within this paper is, "What is the history of HRD in Taiwan from 1949 to 1999?" The Nationalist government moved from China to Taiwan in 1949, and 1999 is the present. Within this question, there are four purposes: (1) to trace the history of HRD strategies and policies adopted in Taiwan since 1949; (2) to identify patterns from the evolution of HRD in Taiwan since 1949; (3) to posit the functions the HRD system serves in Taiwan; and (4) to posit an HRD definition that is derived from the patterns and functions of HRD in Taiwan.

Methodology

This paper is developed based on relevant publications (government and academic) and other secondary materials on human resource development (HRD) strategies in Taiwan and their role in Taiwan's economic development. The primary sources of data are various official publications of the Executive Yuan, the Ministry of Education, and the Council for Economic Planning and Development in Taiwan. Secondary sources are scholarly periodicals, internet protocols published either in Chinese or English, and pertinent books published either in Taiwan or the U.S. These materials were then patterned in a combination of chronological and topical order. Then the patterns were interpreted.

Theoretical Framework

In Taiwan's case, HRD is receiving much more attention recently and is now highly valued (Chen, 1997; Chen & Mink, 1995). It has aroused the attention of both scholars and the business/industry sector. Many Taiwanese HRD studies have been published in Taiwan and the U.S. during the 1990s. During the early 1990s, scholars in Taiwan

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were interested in the effects of employer-sponsored training on labor productivity (Lyau, 1994). Lyau's study showed a positive, significant relationship between training and labor productivity at the firm level in Taiwan. In the middle of the 1990s, researchers turned to identifying the competencies HRD professionals should have and the roles HRD practitioners should play in Taiwan. For instance, Lee (1994) indicated that 34 HRD competencies and 12 roles of HRD professionals identified in Taiwan were similar to the competencies and roles in the U. S., as identified in a study conducted by ASTD (McLagan & Suhadolnik, 1989).

Cross-cultural HRD is also attracting attention. Chen and Mink (1995) examined the relationships between organizational climate and HRD practices between American and Chinese corporations in Taiwan. By using Lippitt's (1982) Human Resource Development Assessment Inventory, they found that the organizational climates and HRD practices in U. S. American firms and Chinese firms in Taiwan were different. Lin (1991) investigated the differences and similarities of management philosophy, organizational climate, and managers' learning among U. S. American subsidiaries, Japanese subsidiaries, and local Taiwanese firms in Taiwan. One of her major findings was that supervisors in Taiwanese firms participated most actively in company-sponsored learning programs, whereas supervisors in Japanese subsidiaries participated least actively.

In spite of this interest, however, no study, surprisingly, has indicated what HRD really is, that is, what the definition is of HRD in Taiwan. Two of the researchers mentioned earlier used the definitions of HRD originated in U.S. studies. Lee (1994) used McLagan and Suhadolnik's (1989) definition of HRD in his study. Also, Lee (1995) in his study took Walker's (1982) definition that HRD is the process of analyzing an organization's human resource needs under changing conditions and developing the activities necessary to satisfy these needs. Surprisingly, neither author explained why they picked these two definitions.

However, several studies that explored HRD activities in different countries all conclude that, although the majority of HRD principles applied internationally originated in the U.S., the nature and purposes of HRD activities differ in each country, as does its definition (Elliott, 1998; Harada, 1998; Hillion & McLean, 1997; Wee-Liang-Tan, 1998; Yan & McLean, 1997). The U. S. definition and functions do not completely apply to other countries.

Thus, without a review of HRD's history and its roots in Taiwan (or any other country), a comprehensive definition of HRD for that country cannot be established. Taiwanese scholars and researchers need to define what HRD is and to determine what functions the HRD system serves in Taiwan.

Research Findings

The review of literature revealed the following themes as critical in responding to the research question posed for this paper.

Recognizing the Importance of Developing Human Resources

The linkage between education and productivity has been the subject of numerous studies in the literature of both economics and of sociology (Lucas, 1981; Meyer, 1977; Ming, 1994). Taiwan's economic success supports the idea that developing human resources through education has an important bearing on economic growth.

In Taiwan, HRD has been a key strategy for economic growth since its beginning with a strong emphasis placed on education and vocational training by the Taiwan government. As early as 1911, when the Ching Dynasty was overthrown, Dr. Sun Yat-Sen, founder of the Republic of China, set a goal of basing the nation on the Three Principles of the People–Nationalism, Democracy, and the People's livelihood (MOE, 1996). It was essential to implement a new education system before the country attained this goal.

In 1929, before moving to Taiwan Island, the National government put forth the educational goal of fulfilling the ideal carried in the Three Principles of the People. Geography and history were to be taught to build a sense of Nationalism, lessons on social life and conduct were to be given to demonstrate the operation of Democracy, and vocational skills were to be taught to meet the Principle of Livelihood (MOE, 1996). Vocational education was emphasized by the founder of the country from its beginning.

Vocational Education

Taiwan has a skilled and productive work force to keep it competitive in the world market (Galenson, 1979; Kuo, 1983). As vocational education grew, so did Taiwan's industries. This did not happen by chance but was the result of a careful design. Many studies in the U.S. and Taiwan have established a positive relationship between economics and vocational education (Gustman & Steinmeier, 1982; Land, 1990; Lucas, 1981; Yuen, 1993).

Research has also indicated that vocational education has provided the skilled labor force that has contributed to economic development in Taiwan during the last several decades. Lucas (1981) also found that, without the efficient and highly skilled work force, Taiwan would not have held her economic advantage.

Origin of vocational education in Taiwan. In 1949, when the Taiwan Nationalist government was established on Taiwan Island, various forces and events were at play to shape the future of vocational education in Taiwan. The current vocational education system in Taiwan was imported in the 1950s from the U.S. (Chang, 1991; Chen & Shih, 1989; Land, 1976). In the 1950s, the U.S. government offered several projects to help Taiwan, among which was the Industrial Vocational Education Cooperative Project. A contract financed by the International Cooperation Agency was negotiated between Taiwan Normal University and Penn State University to establish a department of industrial education and a department of home economics. The two departments, established in the spring of 1953, marked a milestone in the history of Taiwan vocational education.

Proactive progress of vocational education. From the 1950s, Taiwan's policy on vocational education has been proactive, progressive, and constantly changing to meet manpower needs to attain its national objectives. Vocational education has been carefully planned and developed over the past forty years to meet this demand and challenge. To some extent, one of the major factors contributing to successful economic development in Taiwan is the quality and quantity of the well-educated and highly-skilled workforce provided by vocational education.

Because of the import-substitution policies initiated in the late 1950s and the export-promotion strategy in the 1960s, labor-intensive industries were chosen as the main thrust in Taiwan's economy (Hwang, 1991). The reform of vocational education policy was important in providing the human resources needed in the increasing labor-intensive industries at that time. The ministry increased the ratio of students in high school to those in vocational schools from 6:4 to 3:7 in 1981 to encourage the establishment of vocational schools. From the early 1970s to the early 1980s, the number of students admitted to senior high schools was gradually reduced, while the number of senior vocational school students increased. A parallel development was the increasing importance of high-quality facilities, curriculum, and faculty in vocational education. For instance, in 1972, a program was funded by a subsidiary loan from the United World Chinese Commercial Bank for equipment for senior industrial vocational schools. In 1973, the National Taiwan Institute of Technology was founded. In 1979, the first part (1979-1981) of a plan for improving senior industrial vocational education was implemented.

A diversity of vocational training sponsorship was attained by 1974 due to the establishment in 1972 of a National Vocational Training Fund, financed by a payroll tax of 1.5%. Two participating organizations that benefited from these programs were the Tung Yuan Electrical Works and the Yue Loong Motor Company. The Tung Yuan Electrical Works set up an apprenticeship training program in 1958 providing both theoretical and practical training, but it did not establish a formal training center until July, 1973. The Yue Loong Motor Company, the largest automobile producer in Taiwan, was the site of a vocational training center in the metal trades; it held six-month courses for about two hundred participants. It seems that, in view of the difficulties that most countries have had with public vocational education, the Taiwan sponsorship scheme has made for a more effective program.

Events of the past few years of the 1970s indicated that the industrial sector was gradually entering a new era of secondary import substitution (Ranis, 1979). To meet the challenge of the resulting relative increase in the labor shortage, the Taiwan government increased the budget for vocational education. For instance, in 1982, the government implemented the second stage of the advanced plan for industrial vocational education (1982-1985). That budget was more than NT$3,137 million, which was almost twice the amount spent on the first stage of the plan. In 1985, another NT$2,170 million was spent on the third stage. In 1992, the Ministry of Education implemented the "Prolonged National Education Based Upon Vocational Education" program. This program was developed to increase the work skills of youths who did not want to study in a general education curriculum.

Contributions of vocational education to a skilled work force. No research has shown what role vocational education and training have actually played in Taiwan's economic success. A few studies have shown that vocational students are less likely to be underemployed than general high school students (Wang & Hsieh, 1995). Wang and Hsieh (1995) found that male vocational business high school students were less likely to be underemployed than male general high school participants. To be underemployed meant that an individual is working less than he or she would like–and yet they are counted as employed in official statistics (Henderson & Poole, 1991).

The official opinion was that vocational education supplied the pervasive infrastructure undergirding the national economy (Harbinson & Myers, 1964). The effect of increased investment in vocational education on economic growth can be addressed by considering the impact of education investment on society's ability to produce (Hopkins, 1977). Another measure of the return of such investment in vocational education is the proportion of a nation's total production going to human capital (Hopkins, 1977). Thus, in Taiwan's case, the fact that there is a significant relationship between economic effect and vocational education (Gustman & Steinmeier, 1982; Land,

1990; Lucas, 1981; Yuen, 1993) is further evidence of investing in human capital. Some other studies indicated that the excellent work force results in Taiwan are from outstanding vocational education (Chen & Shih, 1989).

Integrating HRD with National Economic Strategies

Taiwan has been internationally recognized as having made great strides in its economic and technological developments in the past forty years (Galenson, 1979). There are many elements contributing to this success, but the most important one is the effective utilization of the abundant and high quality human resources (Lee, 1995). Since 1953, the Taiwan government has included "improving human resource quality" as a major component in the series of plans to develop systematically its economy. For instance, the major tasks outlined in the sixth four-year plan (1973-1975) were to speed up industrial modernization, expand infrastructural construction, improve manpower quality, and promote exports (CEPD, 1996). Further, in the seventh four-year plan (1973-1981), setting up manpower development was one of the major tasks in promoting energy efficiency, improving industrial structure, promoting balanced economic and social development, and completing the Ten Major Development Projects (CEPD, 1996).

In Taiwan, HRD exists in conjunction with other strategies to meet national economic objectives. A pluralistic approach to HRD has been adopted in Taiwan. The Ministry of Education (MOE) has major responsibility for vocational education, while the Council of Labor Affairs (CLA) is responsible for labor affairs, employment services, and vocational training. Other ministries involved with vocational training include Economic Affairs, Youth Council, and the Vocational Advisory Committee for Retired Servicemen. The coordination of human resource planning at all levels rests with the Council for Economic Planning and Development (CEPD) of the Executive Yuan, which undertakes macro-studies and formulates human resource policies.

Public in-service training programs are subsystems for providing HRD as adopted by the CLA. In a broad sense, public in-service training means training that is geared toward society at large; whereas, in a narrow sense, public in-service training is limited to the training implemented by vocational training institutions which are administered by the Employment and Vocation Training Administration (EVTA) under the CLA. Currently, there are 13 public Vocational Training Centers (VTCs) providing 8,425 training slots. Training programs cover 104 trade areas in metal processing, automotive maintenance and repairs, electrical engineering, electronics, computer information, construction, printing, and service industries. Any Taiwanese citizen who is over 15 years old or a junior high school graduate can enroll in pre-employment training for employable skill training. They also will be assisted to obtain employment by the government after completing the training.

Studies have shown a high degree of success in public in-service training. Land (1990) indicated that job placement records showed a high degree of success, and that many youngsters aspire to enter the training programs. Between 1984 and 1997, a total of 13 VTCs offered entry-level and advanced training to more than 292,530 trainees (EVTA, 1998a). Of this number, 112,266 trainees were enrolled in basic training programs and 180,264 trainees were enrolled in advanced training programs. Both total and advanced training program numbers have increased in the past 10 years. Trainees numbered 14,638 in 1985, 22,221 in 1990, and 28,253 in 1997. Trainees for advanced training programs numbered 7,069 in 1985, 15,175 in 1990, and 17,337 in 1997 (EVTA, 1998a).

Establishing Pluralistic Human Resource Development Delivery Channels

Since the 1980s, the Taiwan government has been very concerned about the development of and coordination among various government training centers and training plans. Having a strategic national economic plan in which HRD strategies are integrated is insufficient--what is required is an innovative and pluralistic approach to develop human resources and cooperation among government and local agencies. The pluralistic channels of Taiwan's local HRD systems include enterprise training provided by various institutions, including CLA's training service teams, the Small and Medium Enterprise Administration (SMEA), the Chinese Human Resource Management Association (CHRMA), and Human Resource Development Association (HRDA).

Training services provided by the Council of Labor Affairs (CLA) include enterprise training programs provided by public VTCs and cooperative or apprenticeship training (EVTA, 1998c). Enterprise training is also called employer-sponsored training. It has been defined by Vaughan and Berryman (1989) as "training available in or through the auspices of the firm" (p. 1). Lyau (1994) defined employer-sponsored training as "a systematic intentional process of altering an employee's permanent behaviors with an aim to contribute to the firm's effectiveness, and such process, which may occur outside of the firm, is through the auspices of the firm" (p. 23). This definition implies that training is provided by the employer only as it relates to organizational goals.

According to the Vocational Training Law legislated in 1981 and still in effect, firms are obligated to report their training to the Bureau of Employment and Training (BET) within two months after the end of the fiscal year. Since 1988, the BET has conducted an annual Vocational Training Survey (VTS) within both the public sector and private organizations (Taiwan's BET, 1992a) and the "Vocational Training Needs Survey" (VTNS) (Taiwan's BET, 1992b). Both surveys specified several occupations to be included in enterprise training.

What is the status of enterprise training in Taiwan? In the 1970s, local Taiwanese firms were unable to utilize their high-level human resources effectively and had difficulty in adapting to environmental changes (Negandhi, 1973). Negandhi found that training programs in Taiwanese firms were not well-developed for operatives. The large-scale VTS survey in 1985 indicated that "high labor mobility" was considered the most important reason for not conducting enterprise training (cited in San, 1988, p. 107). Not until the mid-1980s were enterprise training systems begun by some U. S. American companies in Taiwan (Chen, 1997).

One approach to overcoming the high cost in training and a high turnover rate is through enterprise training service teams monitored by CLA to provide small and medium-sized firms with technical services, subsidies, tax exemptions, and other incentives. Currently, there are six major approaches used in promoting enterprise training by the EVTA (EVTA, 1998c). Under this promotion policy, over 898 business enterprises in Taiwan have established training departments offering training to up to 590,000 employees annually (EVTA, 1998b). In 1996, the CLA assisted private enterprises in setting up 43 vocational training centers which have completed training for nearly 1,450 job hunters, as well as on-the-job training for more than 23,090 workers (GIO, 1997). In addition, a nation-wide network of 63 employee service centers offering career counseling and planning, labor education services, welfare, and other programs served 60,000 employees in 1994. A regional Labor Education Promotion Team in each city and county also offered a total of 13,172 training programs to over 477,336 laborers in 1995 (GIO, 1997).

Associations founded locally, such as the Chinese Human Resource Management Association (CHRMA) and the Human Resource Development Association (HRDA), are two major organizations comprised primarily of human resource professionals. They have positioned themselves to help local industry and government to create another economic miracle in the future. Despite its short formal history, the CHRMA, established in 1992, has positioned itself to enhance professional skills among members; to promote cooperation among industry, academia, and government; to improve HR management in small and medium enterprises; to provide the government with recommendations for policy-making and legislation; to establish direct communication channels with mainland counterparts that cultivate mutual exchanges of experience and the sharing of information; and to participate actively in international HR organizations and other professional activities in order to survey international trends for the local HR community (CHRMA, 1996). The major goals of the HRDA are to strengthen human resources within business organizations, enhance labor relations, strengthen productivity, and support the development of the economy in Taiwan (HRDA, 1993). Despite their short history, both organizations are dynamic, professional groups to which most human resource practitioners and business managers in Taiwan belong. They are deeply committed to elevating the nation's HRD and management, as well as its business and national competitiveness.

Discussion

After reviewing and investigating Taiwan's HRD strategies and policies adopted by the government since 1949, the authors summarized them into three parts: (1) patterns drawn from the evolution of HRD in Taiwan; (2) HRD functions in Taiwan; and (3) an HRD definition in Taiwan.

HRD Patterns

Seven patterns were drawn from the above review:

1. Because the organization responsible for the development of HRD policy is under the jurisdiction of the Council for Economic Planning and Development (CEPD) of the Executive Yuan, past and present HRD policy in Taiwan has shown great interest in promoting economic growth.
2. The pattern of in-service training provided by the Vocational Training Centers (VTCs) under the jurisdiction of the Employment and Vocational Training Administration (EVTA), a pragmatic mixture of government- and private-enterprise-sponsored institutes, seems to have worked well (Galenson, 1979).
3. Senior vocational schools and Vocational Training Centers (VTCs) often emphasize immediate placement of young job seekers with basic occupational skills instead of training them for long-term job security.

4. Autonomous HRD systems at provincial, municipal, and local levels have not been established to develop regional HRD programs.
5. Because of the high risks and costs involved in HRD programs, and high labor turnover rates, there is still a lack of participation of private firms in providing enterprise training to employees.
6. HRD and management associations founded locally but serving nation-wide are developing and growing rapidly and are attracting more and more attention from HR professionals and scholars, business and industry leaders, and local communities.
7. The government's commitment to develop human resources through formal vocational education and informal vocational training is a long-term goal.

HRD Functions

The HRD strategies and policies adopted by the Taiwan government since 1949 and the patterns above led to the following three functions of Taiwan's HRD system:

1. From a macro-economic point of view, HRD helps make laborers more employable, decreases unemployment, and enhances economic growth. For instance, youth develop work-related capabilities through senior vocational schools and in-service training programs offered in Vocational Training Centers (VTCs).
2. From a social point of view, HRD helps disadvantaged people develop needed skills for jobs. The VTCs provide vocational training for the handicapped and the "Skill Testing and Certificate" regulations encourage those who do not want to pursue a further academic degree to be certified for further employability.
3. From a scientific and technological point of view, HRD improves labor's skill levels, upgrades technological levels, increases mobility, and reduces structural unemployment. Workers can pursue higher grades of skill certificates and upgrade their skill levels in the VTCs. The training programs and research and development activities sponsored by the Council of Labor Affairs and the Small and Medium Enterprise Administrations allow workers to update their technical and professional skills. Finally, the services of career counseling and planning provided by the Information and Service Centers of the CLA help laborers with career development.

HRD Definition

So, what is the definition of HRD in Taiwan? Ideally, there should be one definition of HRD developed for Taiwan that makes the concept of HRD clear and distinct. It should describe its nature and basic qualities in explicit terms–what it does, for whom, and why. Scholars in Western countries have indicated that "HRD has yet to agree on one definition and some assert that it will not likely do so" (Ruona & Swanson, 1992, p. 1). The authors agree. Any definition of HRD will change from time to time as its concept, scope, and delivery methods are expanding and changing to meet the needs in internal and external environments.

From this review, the definition of HRD that emerges is: *A systematic, intentional, innovative, and long-term committed process of developing an individual's work-related learning capability through education and training with an aim to contribute to individual, organizational, and national growth.*

The purpose of education and training is emphasized through development and growth. To achieve HRD's intended goal, participants need to be developed for the long-term. Education and training focus on the individual. Individuals are the mediating forces through which development occurs and the impact of HRD is experienced. Finally, HRD is work-related. The organization and the whole nation grow through the work of each individual.

Conclusion

This brief review of the evolution of HRD policies and strategies adopted by the Taiwan government since 1949 provides an interesting and unique case study of HRD as a national strategy that might be useful for other countries. The Taiwanese government recognized early the importance of investing in human capital and of committing to develop human resources to promote national economic growth. Since the 1950s, the government has integrated macro-economic HRD strategies with other national economic objectives. Further, through a pluralistic approach which has been planned, implemented, and evaluated by multiple governmental departments, people in Taiwan have different channels for pre-employment training, advanced training, job transfer training, second expertise training, and vocational training for the handicapped. Finally, people in Taiwan have easy access to employee services, such as career counseling, career planning, and labor education nation-wide.

Finally and most importantly, this paper posits three HRD functions and an HRD definition based on the patterns drawn from the evolution of HRD strategies and policies adopted in Taiwan since 1949. It is the belief of the authors that knowing the origin of HRD practices, the evolution of HRD policies and strategies, and the functions of HRD systems is essential for a better understanding of the current HRD status and implications. The authors also hope that there is something to be learned from history.

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Expatriate Development for the Asia-Pacific Region: A Comparative Analysis of Expatriates from Five Countries Across Three Continents

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With increasing interests for business expansion in the Asia-Pacific region, expatriate development has become a critical international HRD issue for MNEs, who are taking active interests in expansion of their business operations in the potential region of Asia, despite the current financial crisis. There has been substantial empirical research on expatriate management in the west, but very little was found on Asia, and comparative studies are lacking. This paper presents the findings of a descriptive study conducted on key international HRD issues, specifically relating to training and development of expatriates from five countries representing the three major continents of the world (Singapore, Japan, Korea, Germany and USA) . The results provide significant information about the types of expatriate training programs, training contents, duration, delivery modes, and providers of effective training programs that would lead to productive expatriate performance in the Asia Pacific region.

Key Words: International HRD, Expatriate Training, Asia Pacific

Owing to rapid globalization of business activity, international human resource development (HRD) has become increasingly important in recent years. This is especially true when domestic human resource development takes on international dimensions as it deals more with multicultural workforce. International HRD, much of it embodied in cross-cultural training, has been proposed by many scholars as a means of facilitating more effective interaction among managers, employees and customers from different national-cultural backgrounds. Various reasons have been cited for this, the most prevalent being that such training is not thought to be necessary and thus top management sees no need for it. However, the fundamental reason behind the lack of training seems to lie in wrong assumption that good management is good world-wide (Black & Mendenhall, 1989; 1985; Black, 1988; Schwind, 1985; Runzheimer, 1984; Tung, 1981; 1984; Graham, 1985; Landis & Brislin, 1983; Brislin, 1981; Bouchner, 1982; Harris & Moran, 1979; Zeira, 1976).

Global and cross-cultural training and career development planning becomes necessary for managers in today's organizations, regardless of their domestic or international assignments (Osman-Gani, 1997, 1996; Marquardt & Engel, 1993; Odenwald, 1993; Reynolds & Nadler, 1993; Johnston, 1991; Rhinesmith, 1991). While much has been written on expatriate training and development in general, very little was documented on comparative analysis among expatriates from different national and cultural backgrounds, specially who are working in Asia. With Asian economies ready to take centre stage in the twenty-first century, despite the recent financial crisis, it is only logical that we should have a better understanding of the comparative expatriate management issues spanning the three continents. This study attempts to fill the research gap in this area of international management and international HRD literature, which by far focused mainly on the Western economies.

Until the recent regional financial crisis (since the last quarter of 1997), East Asia was one of the fastest growing regions in the world. According to the UN World Economic Survey, East Asia grew by an annual average rate of 4.5% during the last decade, while ASEAN's (Association of South East Asian Nations) average was at 6.8%. The comparable rate for the US was 1.4% and 1.7% for Europe. ASEAN member countries were ranked among the world's largest hosts of foreign direct investment inflows. At the same time they are becoming significant foreign investors themselves, mostly in other less-developed Asian countries. The OECD has projected the Asia-Pacific to grow by 5-6% to the year 2010. On the other end, the comparable rates for North America and Europe were set at 2-5% and 3-4% respectively.

USA, Germany, Japan, and South Korea are found to have extensive overseas business operations in the region, especially in the form of foreign direct investments (FDI). Among the Asian economies, Japan is the most export-oriented country, which is followed by South Korea and Taiwan. Singapore is a relatively new player in this game, but it has shown substantial growth in its overseas business performance during the last few years after the government's aggressive policy of Regionalization. However, the predominance of the literature in English has been on the American MNEs, followed by some Europeans with very little information on the training of expatriates

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for the Asia-Pacific region.

This paper reports the findings of a study conducted on the expatriates from these five countries working in the Asia Pacific region, with the view to obtaining descriptive accounts on the types of training programs considered important for preparing expatriates, the areas of emphasis in the training programs, the duration of such programs, the training delivery methods, and the agency that should deliver training so as to ensure greater effectiveness. In addition to the descriptive findings, the author also explored the differences in what the expatriates from these economies perceive on these aspects of training. The author chose to use expatriates as the source of data as they provide a relatively unbiased information being individuals who have been deployed on overseas assignments and who being "in the field," so to speak, could provide insights into the training needs of expatriates. Differences are expected in the training and development strategies in the light of differences in the domestic environments of the sending organizations. These differences may be due to socio-cultural, legal, political and economic environments of the countries, which are at different levels of economic development.

In order to address the issues on comparative expatriate development, the following research questions are formulated for this study:

1) Are there differences in the types of training programs that are considered to be important for preparing American, German, Japanese, Korean and Singaporean expatriates to take up overseas assignments in Asia?
2) What is the nature of difference among expatriates' views on several training content areas to be incorporated in an expatriate training program for Asia?
3) Are there differences in the views of appropriate duration for a pre-departure training program provided to the expatriates from the five countries?
4) What is the nature of difference in expatriates' views on appropriate training delivery methods to ensure effective expatriate performance in the Asia-pacific?
5) Are there differences among expatriates' views on who should deliver the training programs to ensure greater effectiveness of their performance?

Methodology

The research methodology for the study consisted of sample interviews, and a survey of American German, Japanese, and Korean expatriate professionals working in Singapore. The survey also included a sample of Singaporean managers who were working overseas, and could be available in Singapore after completing or in the process of completing the assignment. A questionnaire was developed to collect data on several issues relating to training and development and other areas of expatriate management. In designing the questionnaire, some items were selected from previous surveys used in similar studies conducted in other countries, which were integrated with additional items developed from the findings of the interviews and the literature review.

A panel of experts comprising of university business faculty, and senior business executives, was consulted to verify the content, sequence, structuring and relevance of the questionnaire items. In addition, it was administered to a sample of forty expatriates each from America, Germany, Japan, Korea, and Singapore, in a pilot test. In the process, views and suggestions were gathered on further improvement to the questionnaire so that it is comprehensive enough to cover the relevant issues and is easy enough to complete by the expatriates. The questionnaire was administered personally to achieve a good response rate.

For the purposes of the study, the authors obtained stratified random samples of American (180), German (180), Japanese (180), Korean (170), and Singaporean (180) expatriates. The expatriates represented various multinational enterprises (MNEs) operating in three major business sectors in Singapore. Stratified random sampling method was used to draw the samples from the sampling frames of the five groups. The sampling frames were identified from the membership listings of the American, Japanese, Korean and German Chambers of Commerce and Industries in Singapore, and by consulting the "Singapore 1000" directory listing. The study focused on the companies from the three major business sectors representing the three classification strata of the study. Each stratum comprised ten companies from each of the three major business sectors: Manufacturing, Transportation/Logistics, and Financial Services. These three sectors were found to cover most of the MNEs based in Singapore. The classifications of the three major industrial sectors were taken from the Singapore Standard Industrial Classification.

A total of 501 completed questionnaires were obtained. Of these, 150 were from the Japanese sample (response rate of 83.33%); 103 questionnaires were obtained from the Korean sample (response rate of 60.59%); 72 questionnaires were from the American sample (response rate of 40.0%); 80 questionnaires were received from the

German sample (response rate of 44.44%); and 96 completed questionnaires were received from the Singaporean sample (response rate of 53.33%).

Results

Respondents' Profiles

The representation of the expatriates from the three major business sectors is shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1
Distribution of Respondents by Industry and Economy

Economy Industry	Manufacturing (%)	Transportation/ Logistics (%)	Financial Services (%)
America	47.2	19.4	33.3
German	47.5	17.5	35.0
Korea	41.7	25.2	33.0
Japan	33.3	33.3	33.3
Singapore	57.3	19.8	19.8
Total	43.9	24.6	30.9

It can be observed from the above table that majority of the respondents were from the manufacturing sector (43.9%) for all countries except Japan, whose expatriates were found to be evenly distributed among the three sectors of this study. Respondents in the financial services sector were almost equitably distributed among the five countries with the exception of Singapore, where financial services and transportation sectors were relatively less represented. Transportation and logistics sector drew the least number of responding expatriates in this study.

From a demographic analysis of the responding expatriates, it was found that most of the respondents were of ages between 30 to 44 years old (68.4%), while there were no respondents under the age of 24 for Germany, Japan and Korea. Male respondents formed an overwhelming majority (89%) in all the groups of respondents. The Singaporean respondents manifest the similar imbalance although there is a relatively higher representation of female expatriates compared with the other countries. This gender imbalance is consistent with world wide trend of overseas assignees, and is not peculiar to the respondents of this study. Of the five groups of respondents, it appears that Korean, Japanese, and American MNEs prefer to send married expatriates whereas Singaporean companies were found to be open to both gender types.

In terms of the primary functional areas represented by the respondents, it was found that, overall most of the respondent (59.9%) were involved in general management and marketing functional areas. This may be due to the emphasis placed on the importance on these areas at the early stage of FDI in the Asia-Pacific region. Among them, German and Singaporean expatriates seemed to be more involved in General management areas, whereas Japanese Americans were performing marketing and sales functions, while Korean expatriates and were distributed among general management, finance, and marketing jobs.

Issues of Expatriate Training & Development

Training and development of expatriates should begin where the selection process ends. The basic aspects of expatriate development are, the development of expatriates before, during, and after overseas assignment; the orientation and training of expatriate families before, during, and after foreign assignments; and the development of the headquarters staff responsible for the planning, organization, and control of overseas operations.

Research has shown that expatriate training is often neglected or handled poorly in many international organisations. Baliga and Baker (1985) found that only 25% of the largest U.S. MNCs provide extensive pre-departure orientation programs. Tung (1981) also observed that only 32% of the U.S. companies surveyed provided some international training. Expatriate training seemed to be more prevalent amongst the European and Japanese MNEs, with 69% of the European and 57% of the Japanese multinationals rendered some form of training to their expatriates. Studies have also found that between 16% and 40% of American managers sent on overseas assignments return prematurely because of poor performance or because of the inability to adjust to the foreign environment. The costs for expatriate failure also include unquantified losses like damaged corporate reputation and

lost business opportunities. Clearly, some form of training is necessary to minimise expatriate failure (Baker & Ivanceich, 1971; Tung, 1981; Black, 1988; Harvey, 1989).

International training and development programs need to recognise the importance of bringing about attitudinal and behavioural changes in the expatriates and their families. Rahim (1983) proposed a model to guide the development of expatriates. The major developmental issues that need to be considered are summarised in this model, which emphasised the need for constant feedback to allow for evaluation of the expatriate's performance. It is also through these feed backs that corrective actions can be taken to resolve any difficulties the expatriate may be facing, thereby helping to improve the expatriate's job performance in the host environment. Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) proposed three critical areas in which the organizations should prepare their expatriates. These are: cultural training, language instruction training and orientation training on familiarity with everyday matters. Similarly, Rahim's model also emphasised these areas. Preparation can take place before departure, post-arrival or during re-entry. The aim of the preparation is to ensure the expatriate is familiar with the host-country conditions, culture and his family's needs in a new environment. Relative preference for the three types training were sought from the five groups of expatriates, and Table 2 presents the findings below.

Table 2

Importance of Pre-departure, Post-arrival and Repatriation Training

Expatriate Training	USA		Germany		Japan		South Korea		Singapore			
	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	F-value	P-value
Pre-departure training	3.07	0.95	3.40	0.74	3.26	0.81	3.22	0.64	3.48	0.82	3.146 *	0.014
Post-arrival training	3.71	0.93	3.46	0.94	3.34	1.03	3.72	0.78	3.70	0.85	3.991 **	0.003
Repatriation training	3.08	1.06	2.66	1.04	2.69	0.96	3.16	0.84	3.07	0.84	6.517 **	0.000

*(1= Least Important, ... 5 = Most Important) * = significant at 0.05 level ** = significant at 0.01 level

It can be seen that expatriates find the importance of pre-departure training at the home country and post-arrival training at the host country compared to the repatriation training. Japanese and German expatriates do not see the importance of repatriation training, while post-arrival training were identified as more important by all the groups. This signifies the importance placed on the learning need for relevant expertise required to conduct business at the host country by considering the socio-cultural and other environmental factors.

Types of Training

Tung (1982) identified six major types of cross-cultural training used by American, European and Japanese companies. They are: (1) environmental briefings used to provide information about such things as geography, climate, housing and schools; (2) cultural orientation designed to familiarise the individual with cultural institutions and value systems of the host country; (3) cultural assimilators using programmed learning approaches designed to expose members of one culture to some basic concepts, attitudes, role perceptions and customs of another culture; (4) language training; (5) sensitivity training designed to develop attitudinal flexibility; and (6) field experience, which sends the participant to the country of assignment to undergo some of the emotional stress of living and working with people from a different culture. Tung also observed that both American and West-European companies recognized the need for more rigorous training for the CEOs and functional heads than for trouble-shooters and operatives. In contrast, the Japanese films appeared to provide slightly more rigorous training for the operatives. Brewster (1988) observed that the emphasis placed by European and Scandinavian MNEs on pre-departure training, particularly language training, continues to be stronger than that of American multinationals. Feldman (1989) surveyed American firms regarding relocation programs regarding relocation programs and found that only 13% of the respondents indicated that they would offer expatriates an orientation program. McEnery and DeHarnais (1990) estimated through a review of American practices that between 50 and 60 per cent of American companies operating abroad do not provide any preparatory training for expatriates. Those that do provide such training, focus only on brief environmental summaries and some cultural and language preparation, and only half of

these programs would last longer than a week. Again, Barham and Devine (1990) found that European, Scandinavian, and Australian firms place less priority on providing pre-departure training for the spouse and family.

Derr and Oddou (1993) advocated cross-cultural seminars as a training method for internationalisation of managers. Baliga and Baker (1985) suggested that the expatriate receive cross-cultural training focused in the assigned region's culture, history, politics, economy, religion, social and business practices. They advocated a training program concentrated on a particular location as opposed to one in which expatriates are taught the broad differences in cultures and encouraged to be receptive to them. However, cultural training is not provided by many organisations. Dunbar and Katcher (1990) observed that only 30% to 45% of the MNEs offer relevant cross-cultural orientation to their expatriates. As Earley (1987) mentioned, a major objective of inter-cultural training is to help people cope with unexpected events in a new culture. Cultural training enables individuals to adjust more rapidly to the new culture and be more effective in their new roles. This cultural preparation is necessary for overseas assignment because financial ability alone does not determine success (Dowling, Schuler & Welch, 1994; McEnery & DesHarnais, 1990).

Language training is needed for successful and productive expatriate performance abroad and should form the part of any long-term management development program for aspiring global executives. Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) stressed that willingness to communicate does not refer to the level of fluency in a foreign language but rather the expatriate's confidence and willingness to use the host-country's language. Proficiency in a foreign language can improve the expatriate's effectiveness and negotiability strength, and can improve the expatriate's access to important information regarding the host-country's economy, government and market.

Practical assistance training makes an important contribution toward the adaptation of the expatriate and the family to their new environment. Some MNEs like Colgate-Palmolive (Lublin, 1992) believe that there is no substitute for on-the-job training in this regard. Ronen (1989) proposed a set of methods and techniques for intercultural training and identified the purposes for each of those methods. There is no unanimity among scholars in recommending a set of training methods and techniques or types of training that would be effective in all nations and cultures. This study aimed at identifying the effective types of training programs for the expatriates working in the Asia-Pacific region.

Research Question 1 : Are there differences in the views of expatriates from the five countries on the different types of training programs for preparing managers to take up overseas assignments in Asia?

In this study, the five groups of expatriates were asked to rate the relative importance of various types of training programmes that should be provided before going on overseas assignments. Six different training programmes were suggested in the questionnaire, and the respondents rated the following types of training in terms of their importance. Table 3 presents the findings with mean scores of the respondents' views.

Table 3
Important Types of Training Programmes to be provided for Effective Expatriate Performance

	USA		Germany		Japan		South Korea		Singapore			
Types of Training	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	F-value	P-value
Cross-cultural training	3.40	0.88	3.41	0.95	2.83	0.88	3.13	0.74	3.43	0.87	10.754**	0.000
Host country language training	2.85	0.99	3.09	0.96	3.45	0.93	3.61	0.98	3.50	0.96	9.363**	0.000
Family adjustment orientation	3.33	0.86	3.11	0.81	2.84	0.93	3.05	0.73	3.28	0.95	5.763**	0.000
Area Study	3.06	0.79	2.68	0.87	2.97	0.79	3.43	0.76	3.07	0.80	10.524**	0.000
Practical training on living conditions	3.11	0.90	2.74	1.11	2.55	0.84	3.00	0.74	3.02	0.87	7.840**	0.000
Overseas acquaintance trips	3.35	0.97	2.61	1.05	2.61	0.95	2.64	0.82	2.97	0.80	10.436**	0.000

*(1= Least Important, ... 5 = Most Important) ** = significant at 0.01 level

Host language training was rated as very important for pre-departure training by all expatriates, except the Americans. However, the American, German, and Singaporean expatriates placed greater importance on cross-cultural training. Prima facie, this finding appears contrary to prior studies on expatriate training indicating the importance of language training but can be explained by the fact that English is the main language of business in Singapore and many countries of the region. The American expatriates do not need training in English for deployment in Singapore and the German expatriates may have English language capability as English is a second language in German school curriculum. It is also interesting to note that overseas acquaintance trips were not considered as important by most of the expatriates whereas the American expatriates rated this as the second most important type of training (mean of 3.35). For the Korean, Japanese and Singaporean expatriates, overseas acquaintance trip is not important probably because they are familiar with the region. In the case of the German expatriates, this finding is interesting as America is further away in distance from Singapore when compared to Germany. Hence, it would not be possible to assert that the trips are not required as they are usually costly and time-consuming, and the marginal benefit derived from these trips over the other training programs does not justify the additional time and resource commitments. This difference could be explained by the fact that German companies have a longer history of overseas operation in Asia compared to the American companies. This situation may be compounded by the fact that it is traditional for managers to be rotated within the domestic confines of the United States with overseas appointments being the exception rather than the rule.

The ANOVA results show that there are significant differences in the views of expatriates, which can be seen from their mean response scores of importance. The author also conducted post-hoc analyses of the means that were found to be significantly different. The results are shown in Table 3a below.

Table 3a

Types of Training	Mean Difference									
	USA-Germany	USA-Korea	USA-Singapor	Germany-Japan	Germany-Korea	Germany-Singapor	Japan--USA	Japan-Korea	Japan-Singapor	Korea-Singapor
Cross Cultural training	-0.009	0.280	-0.020	0.580**	0.290	-0.010	-0.570**	-0.300	-0.600**	-0.300
Host country language training	-0.240	-0.760**	-0.650**	-0.370*	-0.520**	-0.410*	0.610**	-0.160	-0.040	0.110
Family Adjustment orientation	0.220	0.280	0.050	0.270	0.060	-0.170	-0.500**	-0.210	-0.440**	-0.230
Area Study	0.380*	-0.370*	-0.010	-0.300	-0.750**	-0.400**	-0.080	-0.450**	-0.090	0.350*
Practical training on living conditions	0.370	0.110	0.090	0.190	-0.260	-0.280	-0.560**	-0.450**	-0.470**	-0.020
Overseas acquaintance trips	0.730**	0.710**	0.380	0.002	-0.020	-0.360	-0.740**	-0.020	-0.360*	-0.330

* = significant at 0.05 level ** = significant at 0.01 level

The post-hoc analysis bears out the earlier observations on the importance placed by Korea, Japan and Singapore on host country language training; American and German expatriates do not rate it as highly important as them and there is no significant difference in the importance attached to it by the Americans and Germans. Similarly, the earlier observations on overseas acquaintance trips is borne out by the post hoc analysis. Table 5a shows that Korean and Singaporean expatriates place greater importance on area studies than the Americans, Germans and Japanese. This difference may be explained by the availability of information within these MNCs, who are more experienced in international business and their philosophy behind the pre-departure training. An observation is necessary on family adjustment orientation training. It is the type of training with no significant difference was found across countries, with the exception of Japanese, who rated this significantly different from the Americans and the Singaporeans. It is ranked as the third or fourth most important training in each group by their mean scores.

Training Contents

In designing training and development programs for expatriates, companies need to recognise the importance of multiple home-country and host-country role relationships. Rahim's (1983) model for developing key expatriate executives showed major relations between the expatriate manager and other parties interested in international business. The content, mode of delivery and training rigor are important factors in determining the success of training and development programs for overseas assignments. It is very important to identify the relevant areas of training content before designing an expatriate training program so that the required knowledge and skills are provided for effective expatriate performance. Osman-Gani and Toh (1995) conducted a study on more than 200 senior managers of Singapore-based companies involved in international business. The study covered several issues of training and developing managers for success in overseas assignments in the Asia-Pacific region. They identified several areas of training needs with specific content requirements. Seven broad areas were identified, knowledge in which were found to be critical for successful performance in overseas assignments. This study sought expatriates' views on these different training content areas for the Asia-Pacific region.

Research Question 2 : What is the nature of difference among expatriates' views on several training content areas to be incorporated in an expatriate training program for Asia?

In order to respond to the above research question, expatriates were asked to rate the relative importance of various training content areas which should be included in an international training program designed for expatriate managers and professionals. The respondents rated the relative importance of the seven areas. The mean scores together with the ANOVA results are presented in Table 4. Post-hoc analyses of the responses were also conducted on training contents for which significant differences were found in the means at different levels of significance.

Table 4
Important Areas to be Incorporated in an Expatriate Training Program

Training Contents	USA		Germany		Japan		South Korea		Singapore		F	P
	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	-value	-value
General management factors	3.57	0.87	3.58	0.61	3.61	0.82	3.43	0.75	3.40	0.75	1.598	0.174
Human resource and labor factors	3.68	0.85	3.46	0.59	3.56	0.85	3.13	0.68	3.60	0.69	8.005**	0.000
Socio-cultural factors	3.58	0.82	3.51	0.84	3.27	0.78	2.86	0.70	3.53	0.72	14.252**	0.000
Accounting, financial and taxation factors	3.35	0.86	3.26	0.82	3.29	0.87	3.60	0.87	3.27	0.77	2.851*	0.023
Legal and environment factors	3.40	0.83	3.36	0.82	3.36	0.76	3.24	0.88	3.49	0.78	1.265	0.283
Production and Technology factors	3.25	0.90	3.25	0.80	3.20	1.11	2.90	0.71	3.23	0.80	2.662*	0.032
Marketing factors	3.40	0.93	3.46	0.95	3.23	0.76	3.30	0.78	3.43	0.84	1.469	0.210

*(1= Least Important, ... 5 = Most Important) * = significant at 0.05 level ** = significant at 0.01 level

General management training area was rated highly by all the five groups of expatriates. Ranked by the means scores, general management is ranked the most important by the Germans and Japanese, second by the Koreans and third by the Americans. It can be observed that there is a similarity in rating top three training content areas deemed important by the American and German expatriates: human resources and labour factors, socio-cultural, and general management. In contrast, the Korean expatriates consider issues concerning accounting, financial and taxation policies of the host country to be more important, followed by general management issues and marketing issues. It is interesting to note that the Korean expatriates did not consider the socio-cultural factors and production/technology factors as important training content areas relevant to their performance. The Japanese and Singaporean expatriates placed substantial importance legal and environmental factors. The post-hoc analysis reveals that the Koreans' mean score differ significantly from all other expatriates, whose means are not significantly different among themselves, in the areas of human resource and socio-cultural factors. This may be

owing to the Koreans' familiarity with the socio-cultural environment of the region, and with the specific job related factors that they would be dealing with. This can be contrasted with Osman-Gani & Toh 's (1995) findings where the top three preferred areas of training were general management, human resource & labour, and legal & environmental issues. Accounting, financial and taxation factors is the most important area for the Koreans. The background of the respondents may provide some explanation in this regard. However, Table 3 showed that there is no preponderance in finance and accounting as a primary functional area, although 20.6% of the Korean respondents have finance/accounting as their primary functions. The emphasis on accounting, financial and taxation factors may be a reflection of the Korean MNEs focus on financial controls as a means of strategic control.

Training Duration

Determining the right amount of pre-departure training for expatriates is not an easy task. If too little time is spent on pre-departure training, the expatriates may not be well prepared, which could lead to poor job performance and even premature termination of the expatriate assignment. On the other hand, if too much time has been spent for pre-departure training, the trainees may suffer from information overload and boredom, and the company may be spending too much resources. Among the various types of training programs for international managers, some last only few hours, others last for months. Some are fairly superficial, others are extensive in coverage.(Mendenhall & Oddou, 1988; Hodgetts & Luthans, 1994). The preferred duration of training for overseas assignment in the Asia-Pacific would vary widely with mean hours of 17 to 51 hours for a program depending on the type and contents of the program. The majority of the companies (54.35%) had pre-departure expatriate training programs of an average duration of one to four weeks per program in a year (Osman-Gani & Toh, 1995). This study aimed at identifying appropriate duration of pre-departure training program for expatriates working in Asia.

Research Question 3 : Are there differences in expatriates' views on the appropriate duration of a pre-departure training program for managers' overseas assignment in Asia?

To answer this question, the expatriates were asked to identify the appropriate duration for an expatriate training program to be conducted before taking an overseas assignment. Table 5 presents the findings of the expatriates' views in order of their importance along with the ANOVA results.

Table 5
Appropriate Duration for Pre-departure Programmes

Training Duration	**USA**		**Germany**		**Japan**		**South Korea**		**Singapore**		**F**	**P**
	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	-value	-value
1 day (8 hours)	2.25	1.18	1.45	0.75	1.56	0.88	2.01	0.94	1.66	0.94	10.346**	0.000
3 days (24 hours)	3.07	1.20	2.08	1.01	2.10	0.98	2.55	0.79	2.48	1.17	13.024**	0.000
1 week (40 hours)	2.79	1.29	3.01	1.25	3.03	1.10	3.01	0.92	3.19	1.09	1.329	0.258
2 weeks (80 hours)	2.00	1.10	3.36	1.15	3.01	1.23	3.36	1.02	3.02	1.25	17.174**	0.000
More than 2 weeks	1.75	1.34	2.36	1.21	2.99	1.46	3.84	1.20	2.42	1.28	30.888**	0.000

*(1 = Least Appropriate, ... 5 = Most Appropriate) ** = significant at 0.01 level

Table 5 shows that there are distinct preferences on training duration for expatriates from each economy. There is no commonly preferred specific duration for training indicated by the expatriates. What can be discerned from the mean scores for each group of expatriates is a distinct preference on the part of all expatriates (except Americans) for training to be of a longer duration. Only Korean expatriates' top preference for training was found to be more than two weeks in duration whilst others showed the preference for the duration of one to two weeks. In contrast, American expatriates preferred training to be of a shorter duration instead. Whilst the American preferences are not exactly in perfect descending order, they prefer training of three days, one week and one day as the top three preferences according to the mean scores. When the mean scores for each group of expatriates is

analysed using ANOVA, no significant difference was found in the scores for the duration of "one week," signifying the unanimity of preference in this respect.

Post-hoc analysis results reflect the significance of differences in the preferred duration of training among the groups. It may be observed that least significant differences were found among the Koreans and Singaporeans, as well as among Germans and Japanese. They only differed in "more than 2 weeks" category. Whereas Americans differed significantly with all the groups for almost all training duration categories.

Training Delivery

Selection of appropriate training delivery methods depends on many factors, the most significant one being the training rigor, which is again dependent on job and culture novelty issues. Research shows that training rigor is critical to the success of cross-cultural/expatriate training programs. The ability of a firm to determine the appropriate degree of training rigor needed for its global managers is the secret to cross-cultural training design. Black and Mendenhall (1989) presented a model showing the relationship of high and low rigor training with methods of delivery and time spent on training. According to them, low rigor training includes approaches such as lectures, films, area briefings, and books. Whereas high rigor training approaches are interactive language training, assessment centers, and sophisticated cross-cultural simulations. The duration of low rigor training was four to twenty hours, and for high training rigor, it is between 60 to 180 hours (Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992; Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991; Black & Mendenhall, 1989; 1990). This study attempted to identify the suitability of various types of training delivery methods for effective expatriate performance in their overseas assignments in Asia.

Research Question 4 : What is the nature of difference in expatriates' views on appropriate training delivery methods to ensure effective expatriate performance in the Asia-Pacific?

Six most common training delivery methods used for expatriate training were identified through literature search, and the respondents were asked to rate the relative appropriateness of the methods to ensure effective overseas performance. The descriptive findings and the ANOVA results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6
Appropriate Training Delivery Methods for Effective Expatriate Performance

Training Delivery Methods	USA		Germany		Japan		South Korea		Singapore		F	P
	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	-value	-value
Lecture / classroom training	2.71	1.07	2.55	0.84	3.11	0.84	3.01	0.75	2.87	0.87	6.583**	0.000
Workshop / seminar	3.33	1.16	3.29	0.91	2.93	0.81	2.86	0.65	3.07	0.88	5.231**	0.000
Case-study / video system	3.11	0.99	3.28	1.01	3.21	0.94	3.12	0.85	3.23	0.89	0.493	0.741
Role play / Interaction	2.60	1.24	3.46	1.09	3.02	0.87	2.82	0.85	2.84	1.04	7.981**	0.000
Self-instructional training modules	2.53	0.96	2.42	1.08	2.97	0.92	3.10	0.75	2.49	1.10	10.153**	0.000
On-site (on-the-job training)	3.78	1.12	4.05	0.87	3.93	1.09	4.11	0.87	3.88	0.92	1.538	1.900

*(1 = Least Appropriate, ... 5 = Most Appropriate) ** = significant at 0.01 level

On-site or on-the-job training has been ranked as the most appropriate and effective training delivery method by all groups of expatriates. The ANOVA results show that there are no significant differences in the means for this delivery method among the groups. This could be because such form of training is by far the most direct (with one to one personal contact) form of instructional method. It provides trainees with an opportunity to learn through hands-on experiences under real-life business settings, and opportunities to clarify issues on the spot. The ANOVA results also show that there are no significant differences among the groups for the case-study/video system based training programs, which are very popular among the expatriate managers.

When the delivery methods preferred by each group are ranked by their means, one can observe similarity in the preferences between the Americans and the Germans. After on-site training which is common to all the groups, these two groups prefer workshops (American – 2nd; German –3rd), case study (American – 3rd; German – 4th), and lectures (American – 4th; German – 5th) in the descending order of preference (based on the ranking of the means). The only exception is role play, which is ranked 2nd most important by the German expatriates. The post-hoc analysis revealed that there is no significant difference between American and German expatriates in the mean scores for lecture/classroom teaching, workshop/seminar, and self-instructional training modules; the first two findings confirming the observation on the similarity in American and German preferences.

Asian (Korean, Japanese and Singaporean) expatriates appear to prefer delivery methods that are in one direction with less interaction where there is possibility of "loss of face" or public embarrassment. They appear to opt for situations of one to one or one to small group learning (e.g. on-site). Their aversion to interactive learning (workshop, lectures and case analysis) is seen in the preference for self-directed learning. The above findings are also consistent to a great extent with previous studies on international training and development.

Research Question 5 : Are there differences in the views of expatriates on who should deliver the training programs to ensure effective learning and performance in the Asia-Pacific?

In order to identify the effective providers of expatriate training programs, the respondents of this study were asked to rate the relative effectiveness of the various training providers. Table 7 presents the findings as follows.

Table 7
Effective Providers of Expatriate Training Programmes

Training Providers	USA		Germany		Japan		South Korea		Singapore		F	P
	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	Mean*	S.D.	-value	-value
In-house / company personnel headquarter	3.08	0.93	3.18	1.08	3.47	1.05	3.31	0.85	3.28	0.85	2.333	0.055
Host country subsidiary / partner personnel	3.69	0.93	3.63	0.86	3.53	0.90	3.68	0.86	3.60	0.93	0.617	0.651
Outside professional consultants	3.07	1.05	2.99	1.01	3.03	0.89	3.00	0.70	2.82	0.91	1.050	0.381
University / academic professionals	1.88	0.82	2.35	1.06	2.29	1.07	2.53	0.81	2.53	0.81	5.245**	0.000

*(1 = Least Effective, ... 5 = Most Effective) ** = significant at 0.01 level

Host country subsidiary/partner personnel has been regarded by all the expatriates as being the most effective and qualified to provide the necessary training for effective expatriate performance. This could very well be due to their familiarity with the conditions and environment of the host-country, and hence are in the best position to impart the necessary knowledge and skills of host-country management to the expatriates. In-house/company personnel/headquarter is the second most important in all the groups. The ANOVA results show that there is no significant difference in the means, except in the category of academic professionals. It may be interesting to note that the expatriates for all the five countries viewed the university/academic professionals as being the least effective among the four groups of expatriate training providers.

Conclusions

In the past, studies on expatriation often focused on regions outside Asia, especially on Europe and America. However, as the Asian economies have gradually become important and interesting to foreign investors/MNEs, the relevance of those studies in the context of current business trends needs to be re-assessed. One can not deny the existence of the fundamental differences in historical, socio-cultural and political backgrounds between the East and the West. Research findings in the past pertaining to expatriates working in the west mostly from countries such as the United States and other European countries may not necessarily apply to the rapidly growing number of expatriates working in Asian countries. Further, the recent involvement of MNEs from developed countries in Asia provides an excellent opportunity to re-evaluate the training of expatriates in this region. This study, through focusing on the five groups of expatriates from three continents, may uncover new perspectives and directions in

international human resource development, particularly relating to the critical HRD decisions of design, development and delivery of effective training programs for effective performance in the expatriate assignments in Asia. Empirical findings from this study showed significant differences among the expatriates from different countries on various issues of training and development, which might provide first hand information that could be utilized for making appropriate decisions in that regard. Although this study serves to narrow the research gap on expatriates working in the Asia-Pacific, it is far from being comprehensive and exhaustive. Future research in this area is needed to explore other aspects in many other countries of Asia that have not been studied. More studies on expatriates in Asia are definitely needed since increasing interest is observed for investments in this rapidly growing region of the world. Hopefully, the findings from this study will trigger greater research interest on expatriate management in Asia.

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Development Of A Framework For Emerging Asian MNCs And A Model For Promising Local Enterprises To Migrate Onto The 'MNC Curve': An International HRD Perspective.

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Increasing globalisation creates continuous challenges for corporations. In the new knowledge economy of the 21st century, as corporations surf the 'global wave', human capital will play a key role. This work-in-progress paper looks at the evolution of the global economy, impact of changes brought about by technology, communication and education. It also surveys the different approaches to management development adopted by American, European and Japanese MNCs. The paper aims to propose that if corporations are to survive the 'global wave', a different trajectory is needed – one that allows organizational flexibility, renewal, global integration and national responsiveness.

Keywords: Emerging Asian MNCs, Multinational Management, International HRD

As the world economy gets increasingly interdependent and interconnected, doing business as usual is not enough. Most industries of any significance have to be world-wide in their scope, and no company – no matter how large its home market base – is immune from the effects of the international environment. Jeffrey D Sachs wrote in the Global Competitiveness Report 1998,

"...with all of the ups and downs in specific economies and regions, the trend towards greater integration in the world economy continues unabated. This is especially apparent when we look at the underlying data concerning openness of national economies. As of 1998, every country in the sample has a currency that is essentially convertible for trade purposes...Globalisation is no illusion. It has gripped nearly every major economy of the world. Both trade and financial systems are opening up as never before in modern history. This is not to say that all will go smoothly – as the east Asian financial crisis demonstrates – but rather that the powerful economic, political and technological forces that are prompting the increasing integration of the world economy are continuing unabated."

For multinational and transnational corporations, the coming millennium will very likely begin with either a long list of unresolved issues or hopefully, the full benefit of the lessons learnt from the Asian Economic Crisis and it is imperative that corporations, especially Asian multinationals and promising local enterprises gear up and learn to dance to the new tune.

In Singapore, the Promising Local Enterprise [PLE] program was launched in 1995 by the Singapore Government, to help nurture strong local enterprises to become Asian MNCs. The Singapore Government aims to produce 100 companies (of a total of 300 in the scheme) with revenues of USD50millions by 2005, then groom them eventually into Asian MNCs with turnovers of USD200millions to USD250millions and with significant presence in at least four foreign countries.

However, before a corporation can build and manage an effective integrated network of world-wide operations, it must develop certain strategic and organisational assets. While some countries may offer certain location-specific advantages, the company must have strategic competencies to counteract the disadvantages of its relative unfamiliarity with foreign markets. One key contributing competency is the quality of the company's human capital. It is important that the company has organisational capabilities in order to be able to get better returns from leveraging its strengths internally rather than through external market mechanisms (Dunning, 1981). Thurow (1992) argues that technology is no longer an overriding factor in economic competition between nations because of the ease of capital mobility. National resources are also not as important a factor as they used to be, again because of the accessibility of technology. He argues that the most important factor affecting economic competitiveness is the quality of the workforce. In fact, the 1992 World Investment Report concluded that transnational corporations use ownership-specific advantages, together with the competitive pressures to internalise a wide range of value-adding activities rather than relying on so-called 'arms length' production. These internalisation advantages when combined with the location-specific advantages of host countries, provide a powerful stimulus to growth..

Review of the literature shows that the study of international business had focused on the environmental forces, structures, and institutions that provided the context within which MNC managers had to operate. Most of

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these studies are deeply rooted in Western historical experience. The study of Asian MNCs is a relatively new field, with much to be learned. The focus of this research will be the multinational enterprise management structure and HRD practices, with particular reference to Asian MNCs and promising local enterprises. However, this does not suggest that the important and legitimate perspectives and interests influencing other key factors in the international operating environment will be ignored.

Evolution of the Global Economy

Dunning (1993), categorised the evolution of the global economy into five stages, each distinguished by a different configuration of the competitive strengths and weaknesses of firms, and their strategic response to them, as well as that of the competitive strengths and weaknesses of the Nation States and the strategic response of governments to them. The first stage, from the mid 19th century to the First World War, witnessed a revolution in production and organizational methods and new forms of transport and energy. Stage 2 of the evolution, from 1918 to the outbreak of the Second World War, is characterized by the maturing of both US and the European MNEs and a general move towards the integration of their affiliates into the economies in which they operated. Natural factor endowments together with Government imposed import restrictions remained the main determinants of the location of economic activity. Structural distortions in cross-border markets counteracted the technological and organizational advances of the era and severely hampered international plant specialization and intra-firm trade.

Stage 3, between 1945 and the late 1960s, saw the technological and economic hegemony of the US at its zenith and the international agreements forged at Bretton Woods and GATT were having their most dramatic impact on trade liberalization. As the significance of foreign production and the number of the MNE affiliates grew, the organizational philosophy of MNEs shifted from being mono or ethnocentric to being polycentric, with many companies replacing their international divisions by cross-border functional/product or regional divisions.. This was also a period in which Keynesian economic policies were in full vogue and governments were assuming a more important role in influencing national diamonds of competitive advantage (Porter, 1990). Towards the end of the period, the role of 'created' factor endowments (e.g. entrepreneurship, technology and human capital) was becoming a more important feature of the location attractions of countries, particularly among industrialized developed countries, between which the significance of intra-industry trade was also increasing.

The fourth stage, from the mid-1960s to the mid-1980s, saw an increase in the propensity of MNEs to integrate and control many of their cross-border activities and to take a more geocentric stance towards these activities. The period was also marked by a movement towards regional integration in Europe and, to a lesser extent, in Asia and Latin America. This allowed MNEs in those regions to rationalize their value-added activities and recoup some of the advantages of product and plant specialization and intra-firm trade.

By the mid-1980s, most developing countries were relaxing some of their restrictive policies towards inbound investment that had been a characteristic of the early and mid 1970s. This mainly reflected a shift in their macro-economic policies from import substituting to export led or balance of growth in these economies and/or the better understanding and expertise of governments in negotiating with MNEs. The period was also marked by a growth in alternative forms of international business involvement to that of the fully-owned foreign subsidiary, as well as a more pronounced heterogeneity of these forms across countries, industries and firms.

The fifth and current state of evolution of the global economy is essentially dominated by a series of dramatic changes in the world economic and political scenario. MNEs become increasingly aware of the need to be responsive to the local supply conditions, institutional systems and markets of the countries in which they operate, and how these, in turn, may be used to strengthen their own ownership-specific resources and capabilities. These factors and the response of MNEs to them also affect the configuration of the competitive advantages of nations. By the end of the 1980s, in the most advanced industrial economies, not only were natural factor endowments assuming a less important locational role and engineered factor endowments a more important role, but also the actions of governments, through their willingness and ability to affect the quantity and quality of these endowments and their organization, were assuming a new significance.

These developments cause realignment of both strategies of companies as they seek to remain innovatory and competitive in a global economy, and the macro-organizational strategies of countries as they seek to encourage domestic and foreign firms both to upgrade their indigenous resources and to use these resources more productively. The rise of MNEs from the Third World, the growth of cross-border strategic alliances, the increasing attention paid by governments to competitiveness as a goal in itself and the closer interaction between corporate and regional integration, are all illustrations of these developments.

In the early 1990s, the MNE continues to evolve into a very different sort of institution. It increasingly

assumes the role of an orchestrator of production and transactions within a system of cross-border internal and external relationships. From being mainly a provider of capital, management and technology to its outlying affiliates, each operating more or less independently, and then a coordinator of the way in which resources are used within a closely knit family of affiliates, the decision taking nexus of the MNE in the early 1990s has come to resemble the central nervous system of a much larger group of interdependent, but less formally governed activities aimed primarily at advancing the global competitive strategy and position of the core organization.

The Evolution Of MNCs In North America, Europe And Japan: Strategic Motivations.

Hymer (1976) and Kindleberger (1969) argue that enterprises invest overseas to exploit an "advantage" such as a unique product or process, a special knowledge, or certain management skills. The multinational corporation, according to Hymer (1979), was originally an American phenomenon. Between the end of the Civil War and America's entry into World War I, the United States had no significant benchmarks in the steady multinationalization of Corporate America because of its economic self-sufficiency. World War I changed that perspective. It pushed the larger oil, copper, nitrates, rubber, and aluminium companies into making irreversible commitments to foreign investments to ensure their companies' future. Foreign expansion by the consumer-driven companies such as General Motors, Goodyear, General Electric, and Du Pont was less urgent and therefore less aggressive. All these foreign ventures had the geographic spread to qualify as "MNC". Yet, in terms of corporate management and finances, they were really American companies with "subordinate" foreign branches that acquired their justification because they served some specific objective.

The real impetus to the multinationalization process in the industrial and service sectors developed during the late '50s. Between 1950 and 1965 US direct investment abroad increased nearly fivefold, from $12 billion to $55 billion. By the end of 1980 the total was approximately $220 billion. In addition, the advances in transportation and communication, the introduction of the computer, and massive rebuilding requirements in Europe coincided with the rapid growth of American MNCs. Perhaps more than any other single force, the Common Market stimulated multinationalization and service enterprises.

The reaction of European business was to join the multinational corporate system rather than to challenge it. European firms were already multinational and they gradually became better equipped for multinational operations as a result of mergers, nationalization, and growth, and they began to extend their international operations in other European countries, in underdeveloped countries, and even in the United States. Therefore, the MNC system was no longer an American system but at the very least became a North Atlantic system both in the sense that Europeans joined the MNC ranks and in the sense that American firms became less tied to the United States.

Traditionally, British and European capitalism has practised portfolio investment, loans, and similar forms of capital export. Although Great Britain and other countries did make direct investments in the nineteenth century, these investments were invariably infrastructure investments [utilities, port facilities, and railroads] (Hall ed., 1968). British investment was accompanied by mass migration of labor. Management, capital, and technology have gone as a package to foreign lands in search of labor, markets, and resources. Most of the original investment made by European countries to the USA was of the portfolio variety. Direct investments made in the US manufacturing sector near the end of the nineteenth century included capital from the British textiles, primary metals, and food and beverages, and from the Germans in chemicals, beverages, and electrical equipment.

The Japanese MNC, on the other hand, had a different motivation. The need to guarantee supplies of raw materials, the need to be cost-competitive (the rising wages, labor shortages, and an appreciating currency), and the need to secure access to the world market led Japanese firms to construct an extensive network of exploration and production abroad. Those activities were conducted by leading Japanese trade firms who were already multinational (Hymer, 1979). Many of these ventures do not take the form of the wholly-owned subsidiary or branch plant used by American MNCs. Instead, they frequently involve production sharing, guaranteed demand contracts, technical assistance, and portfolio capital.

Even after World War II, the Japanese continued their policy of not permitting foreign direct investment but of spending liberally for imported licenses of technology (Tsurumi, 1976). Their purchases of technology from abroad were considerable, yet at the same time they spent more than four times that amount on domestic R&D. Within a relatively short period of two decades Japan transformed itself into an aggressive world leader in many industries. The Japanese succeeded in breaking up the "package" of capital, technology, and entrepreneurship which foreign direct investment has most frequently entailed. They didn't need the capital; they got the technology without managerial control by American corporations, and entrepreneurship remained in the hands of the Japanese.

A Comparison Among American, European, and Japanese MNCs.

Although much cross fertilization took place between Americans and Europeans, and also between managers in developed and developing countries, subtle but noticeable differences still exist between the three groups of multinationals under consideration- Americans, Europeans and Japanese. They are different in their investment strategies, reaction to changes in host-government policies, and the selection and training of overseas managers. Scholars such as Nowotny(1964), Miller (1980), Negandhi and Baliga (1979), Negandhi (1980) Merwe (1980), Stening et. al (1980), Matsusaki (1980) have done comparative studies of American, European and Japanese MNCs from different perspectives.

Comparison on the Evaluation of the Performance.

According to Tsai (1997), the US multinationals, in general, seem to be operating with different definitions from those held by either their European or Japanese counterparts. To American managers, the cardinal principle of efficiency was the profitable production of quality goods and services at a price the consumer could afford or was willing to pay. This notion was continually reinforced by the home office, which rewarded the subsidiary on the basis of its annual bottom line performance. Thus, plant productivity, cost of goods purchased, and similar financial indices became the main concerns. The very legitimacy of overseas operations and their subsequent worth was seen in terms of operational efficiency.

In contrast, the Japanese and Europeans measured success or failure not so much in terms of the operational success of failure or in terms of the operational efficiency criteria used by American MNCs, but in terms of system effectiveness, i.e. the degree to which their organization was able to adapt to and cope with the stimuli emanating from the environment. In order to do so they were often willing to sacrifice some short-term operational efficiency. Furthermore, the home office often reinforced the policy of long-term effectiveness by stationing an expatriate manager in one country for substantial periods of time. The manager's role was evaluated not so much in terms of bottom-line profits as in terms of the ability to cultivate and maintain a harmonious interaction with host-government officials and others in the environment. In contrast, most US executives perceived such activities as a "waste of resources", contributing only to a decrease in efficiency and profitability. In fact, US subsidiary managers were rarely asked by the parent organization to cultivate interface and boundary relationships. Also, European and Japanese executives were given enough leeway and freedom to set their own targets in a given country, while US subsidiary executives were programmed by their headquarters to produce, sell, and make profits at certain levels.

Mentality Differences

Another characteristic displayed by US executives was their misguided notion that they were doing the host nations a big favour by their presence (Negandhi, 1979). In contrast, European MNCs, according to Franko's (1976) study, encouraged a highly adaptable attitude. The Japanese multinationals' overall attitude toward host nations was even more conciliatory than that of the Americans and Europeans. Japanese MNCs generally emphasized their role in contributing to the overall welfare of their host and home countries. They seemed to believe that each and every one of them has a national responsibility to secure resources for Japan, to provide opportunities for small manufacturers from Japan to invest overseas, to sell their advanced technology, and to help host nations achieve their own socio-economic objectives. Such a 'collective' orientation, in contrast to the 'individualistic' orientation of the US executive, strongly reflects Japan's national heritage and religious beliefs (Kitagawa, 1976).

Human Capital And International HRD

Harvard Business Review World Leadership Survey (1991) revealed that corporate executives display keen awareness of the importance of human resources in organizations. According to the survey respondents, the most important elements in corporate success are customer service, product quality and work skills. All three factors are heavily dependent upon human capital – the education, training and motivation embodied in people. The increasing importance of human capital, coupled with changes in technology, consumer demand, demographic composition of workforce and in global competition will have a continuous impact on the role of HRD activities. Once considered to be the most stationary factor in production, human capital now flows across national borders as easily as cars, computer chips and corporate boards. In the next century, the world's workforce will become even more mobile, and employers will increasingly reach across borders to find the skills they need (Johnston, 1991). In a global organization, the human resource challenge becomes recruitment, selection, training and development, and supervision planning on a global scale from global sources. Global and cross-cultural training and career-path

planning becomes necessary for managers in the global corporation, regardless of their domestic or international assignments (Rhinesmith, 1991).

In reality, most managers are, however, nearsighted (Ohmae 1989). Too few managers consciously try to develop plans and build organisations as if they saw all key customers equidistant from the corporate centre. Effective transnational operations require a genuine equidistance of perspective and to succeed in the international operating environment of the 1990s and beyond, managers must be able to sense and interpret the complex and dynamic environmental changes; they must be able to develop and integrate the multiple strategic capabilities; and they must be able to build and manage the complicated yet subtle new organisations required to link these sensing and response capabilities, and deliver co-ordinated action on a world-wide basis. According to Bartlett and Ghoshal (1995), there are three core roles and responsibilities that almost always fall to these key managers: world-wide product or business strategist, architect of world-wide asset and resource configuration, and cross-border co-ordinator and controller. They suggest that in the 1990s, the competence of a firm to develop and manage a cross-border network of separate but interrelated value-added activities will be the key factor determining the success in the global competitive environment. Such a competence, they argue, is three-pronged. First, it involves taking full advantage of the economies of scale and scope arising from global integration. Second, it involves a flexibility and proper appreciation of differences in the supply capabilities and consumer needs in different countries. Third, it involves using the experience gained in global and national markets to strengthen the resource base of the firm as a whole. To achieve such a balance between globalization, localization and learning experience, the traditional MNC organizational structure, with its hierarchical pyramid, subsidiaries and world headquarters, will gradually evolve into a more fluid and integrated network to adapt to strategic and competitive imperatives. For multinationals to survive in a dynamic environment, it also has to have in place, a renewal process involving all levels of management – straddling the entire human capital spectrum

Organizations, however, find various aspect of globalization difficult since the international management literature so far does not provide much guidance. With regard to international HRD, Ronen (1989), concluded that the limited quantity and quality of pertinent literature was the biggest obstacle to pursuing the task of identifying the behavorial characteristics, developing the optimal skills and evaluating the HRD techniques for this purpose. Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) concluded that available knowledge of the cognitive dynamics of international assignees' cross cultural adaptation processes is quite limited.

Research has shown that management methods and managerial knowledge are culturally sensitive and are based on the national identity of managers. But there exists a research gap in the field of management development technology. Also, very little research has been done on the design and delivery aspect of international management development programs which consider the national clusters and cultural aspects of managers' backgrounds. One study looked at the perceptions of MNE managers from 32 different countries on various HRD issues related to the transfer of management technology (Osman-Gani, 1991,1993). It identified several country clusters from the response patterns of managers from various countries, and discussed the implications for design and implementation of cross-cultural HRD programs. Evidence suggests that the national context of a firm's operations plays a significant role in shaping organizational practices, irrespective of the national ownership of the company (Brewster, 1995). Sparrow, Schuler, and Jackson (1994) also identified clusters of countries showing how organizations in different parts of the world operationalize human-resource management differently as a result of environmental pressures.

On the other side of the coin, multinational parent companies also exert influence over their subsidiaries by introducing home-country practices into host countries, irrespective of local conditions. This is evident in the work of Hedlund and Aman (1984) who looked at Swedish multinationals, of Tsurumi (1986) who studied Japanese companies, and of Stopford and Turner (1985) who argued that US multinationals introduced US styled personnel practices to Britain via their British subsidiaries. Yet, research examining the failure of multinationals in overseas operations would suggest a need to adapt management practices as opposed to imposing them abroad (Gleave and Oliver, 1990). Olga (1998) revealed considerable support for proposing national context as a key determinant of MNE practice over parent's national origin. His findings do suggest that the role of the national origin of the parent in shaping MNE practice is less important than the literature suggests – at least, in relation to HRD practice.

International Management Development

Internationalisation, therefore, has deeper consequences on the concept of management itself. Deeply rooted "one-best-way thinking" has been shattered by the awareness that there are different and equally effective approaches to management and organisation. Twenty years ago, "good management" was synonymous with the American approach. Decades later, new approaches and challenges have surfaced in the form of the Japanese model, the "German challenge" and the Swedish model. We are still in the process of discovering that there are as

many different approaches to management as there are national cultures. Evans, Laurent and Doz (1989) maintain that each of these nations has discovered and built upon some aspect of the complex reality of management, though often this concern becomes obsessive and pathological. Aharoni (1966) and Carlson (1966) used a clinical methodology to examine the FDI process from a more managerial perspective. Others like Stopford and Wells (1972) and Franko (1976) built on the seminal work of Chandler (1962) defining the archetypical strategies and structures that had allowed MNCs to expand. Several doctoral dissertations (Prahalad 1975; Doz 1976; Bartlett 1979), examined the nature of the management process in MNCs, though these studies centred primarily on American MNCs. Research on European MNCs was conducted by a group of researchers at the Stockholm School of Economics. Over time, this group focused on the nature of headquarters-subsidiary relationship and provided new insights into how world-wide operations were co-ordinated and controlled (Otterbeck (1981); Hedlund (1978,1986). In general, very little research has been done on Asian MNCs.

Porter (1990) popularised the idea that nations have competitive advantanges and stopped short of the key question of why certain nations develop competitive advantage and others do not. Dunning(1993) argued that Porter underestimated the significance of the globalisation of production and markets for the competitive advantage of nations. This is because the increasing interaction between the cross-border value-added activities by multinational enterprises will directly or indirectly impinge upon national competitive advantage. Hofstede, Franke and Bond (1991) work, building upon three comparative studies providing measures of national culture, may shed some light on this issue. Their thesis concluded that differences in cultural values, rather than in material and structural conditions, are ultimate determinants of human organisation and behaviour, and thus of economic growth. Hofstede (1980,1991) undertook the most classic study of cultural differences and identified five dimensions where cultures differ: (a) power distance, (b) uncertainty avoidance, (c) individualism, (d) masculinity and (e) time. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) developed a framework of six dimensions to describe the values orientation of a culture as, (a) relation to nature, (b) time orientation, (c) basic human nature, (e) relationships among people and (f) space orientation. Trompenaars (1993) describes national cultural differences using seven dimensions: five are about how people relate to others, the sixth is time orientation and the final, relationship to nature. It is to be noted that in discussing the relation of culture to the study of organisational behavior, organisational theories developed in the West may not apply in Asia because of cultural differences. As the world becomes increasingly better interconnected, the implication for managers is that understanding culture is becoming a critical management skill.

Cultural Traditions In Management Development

This paper will proceed to review how companies in different cultures actually manage their executive development as they position themselves for the global transnational environment. According to Evans, Lank and Farquhar (1989), there is no established one best way of tackling management development. Focusing on the development of those persons with high potential, they labelled these – the Japanese model – "elite cohort approach", the Latin model – "elite political approach", the Germanic model – "functional approach" and the Anglo-Dutch MNC model – "managed development approach".

Singapore Companies - Strategies For Future Competitiveness

Singapore was ranked first in the 1998 World Economic Forum Global Competitiveness Report, followed by Hong Kong and the United States. The overall Competitiveness Index is built upon the average of eight factors: Openness, Government, Finance, Infrastructure, Technology, Management, Labor and Institutions. The Committee on Singapore's Competitiveness (CSC) was formed in May 1997 to assess Singapore's competitiveness over the next decade. Among its strategic recommendations are proposals for Singapore companies to leverage on human capital and achieve the status of world class corporations.

Research Methodology

Using the models conceptualised by Bartlett and Ghoshal for transnational corporation renewal, and Osman-Gani for transfer of management technology, as platforms, this exploratory study will seek to find a different trajectory for emerging Asian MNCs and promising local enterprises to leapfrog into the 'next lap'. The study will be conducted using the following approach:

- Interviews with executives of selected MNCs (Japanese, Korean and Singaporean) and a group of promising local enterprises (PLEs).
- Survey of PLEs and MNCs in Singapore, Japan and Korea.
- Focus group discussions with Chief Executive Officers of Promising Local Enterprises.

- Case studies of a sample of MNCs from North America, Europe and Japan.

Research Questions

This research attempts to address the following questions:

1. What HRD strategies are being followed by Western MNCs (American and European) in their development path?
2. What are the nature of similarities and differences in HRD strategies adopted by Western and Asian MNCs?
3. What are the social and cultural implications of the similarities and differences?
4. What are the strategic motivations for emerging Asian MNCs and promising local enterprises to aspire to go international?
5. How can Promising Local Enterprises achieve the synergistic effects of the combination of the two models identified under the research methodology?
6. Can Promising Local Enterprises ride on the Government's policy directions?
7. What HRD strategies should be followed by Promising Local Enterprises to become emerging Asian MNCs?
8. What HRD strategies should be followed in developing a cadre of global managers?

Expected Results

It is hoped that the intensive literature review, case studies, interviews and surveys, while bearing answers to the research questions raised above, will also reveal the similarities and differences between Western and Asian MNCs. The uniqueness of the Asian corporations, the author believes, will also stand out. It is also expected that, given the speed of change in the international business environment and the impetus provided by the Singapore Government, the local promising enterprises will have to take a different trajectory. Following the traditional growth patterns of the traditional MNCs will simply not be adequate. In the process, we will develop the 'migration path' for emerging Asian MNCs and Singapore PLEs.

Contribution To New Knowledge In HRD

This research aims to enhance the existing general pool of knowledge on HRD in MNC management by:

- Adding the Asian framework for emerging MNCs and in relation to the small and medium enterprises.
- Develop a "migration framework" for promising local enterprises to go on the MNC curve.
- Identifying 'renewal' framework for companies to survive in the new economy.
- Highlighting new insights into differences of MNC management between East and West.
- Generating further research questions on developing truly global ('stateless') managers.

Note

For the purpose of this research, the words international, multinational, MNC, multinational enterprise and transnational corporations have been used interchangeably.

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The Framework and Practices of Cross-Cultural Training of Taiwanese Corporations

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This paper reports the findings of a study that investigated the practices of cross-cultural training of high-technology corporations in Taiwan. The results showed that nearly one-third of the corporations had cross-cultural training programs. The training methods, the contents of the program, and the reasons for them to implement the programs or not were also discussed in the study.

Keywords: Cross Cultural Training Technology Training

With "the Taiwan Experience - the Economic Miracle", the amount of outward investment by Taiwanese corporations is tripled what was five years ago. The environment Taiwanese corporations now faced is one in which they must deal with not only single culture but multiple cultures. Research has shown that management style, learning style and value systems are different in different cultures. Both HRD practitioners and researchers must find a new way to help organizations operate in a global context. Cross-cultural training is one of the methods. As the economic power of Chinese Taipei grew over the last decade, more Chinese enterprises made direct investments or set up subsidiaries in other countries. To help the expatriate adapt the other culture, and also let the foreign employees understand the corporate culture, cross cultural training is just getting the attention in the field of HRD both in the industries and the academy.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the practices of cross-cultural training in Taiwanese corporations and to develop or justify a model of cross-cultural training. Three research questions were answered in the study:

1. What is the content of cross-cultural training in Taiwanese corporations?
2. What are the problems that occurred in the cross-cultural training programs?
3. What are the reasons that not implementing cross-cultural training?

Methodology

A questionnaire was used to determine what practices of cross-cultural training were carried out in Taiwanese corporations. Three parts of questions - the practices of cross cultural training, the reasons for not implementing cross cultural training, and the demographic information were asked in the questionnaire. The sample was concentrate on high-technology corporations, since a high percentage of Taiwanese multinational corporations are in the electronic industry.

Ninety-nine Taiwanese multinational companies in high technology industry were selected to conduct the survey from the following criteria:

1. 214 high-technology companies were selected from the Top 1000 corporations published by Taiwan's "Common Wealth" in June 1997.
2. 87 of the 214 selected companies had registered the outward investment in the Industrial Development and Investment Center of the Ministry of Economic Affairs.
3. After double-checked by phone with the 214 companies, 12 companies also had oversea subsidiaries that were not shown on the official record.

The survey was conducted from February 1998 to April 1998 in Taiwan. The questionnaires were distributed to the HR managers in the headquarters of the selected corporations. The over all response rate was

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64.65%. Out of the 65 returned questionnaires, 7 did not have completed demographic data. After excluding these incomplete questionnaires, the response rate was 57.6%.

Findings

The results of the expatriate duration, length of training, training methods, contents of the program, problems with implementing cross-cultural training program, and the reasons for not implementing cross-cultural training are described in the following sections.

Table 1 shows the expatriate duration. The results show that 64.7% of the companies sent their employees overseas more than 1 year. The research also found that about 31.6% of the electronic companies have overseas subsidiaries has cross-cultural training program

Table 1. Expatriate duration

Expatriate duration	Percentage(%)
1-month & below	11.8
2-month to 1-year	23.5
1~2 years	52.9
2~3 years	5.9
3 years & above	5.9

Table 2 shows the length of the cross-cultural training program. Most of the cross-cultural training programs are on-day training. 17.6% of the companies offers 2-day training while 23.5% of the companies has 3-day training programs.

Table 2. Length of training

Length of training (day)	Percentage(%)
1	52.9
2	17.6
3	23.5
4	0
5	0
6 and above	5.9

The degrees of expected interaction and similarity between the native and host cultures determined the cross-cultural training method (Tung, 1981; Mendenhall, Dunbar, and Oddou, 1987). Table 3 shows the cross-cultural training methods. Area briefings, books, lectures, and films are the four most often used training methods. The methods are information giving approach or didactic-information training (Mendenhall, Dunbar, and Oddou, 1987; Ronen, 1989). Case studies, cultural assimilators, and role plays belong to affective approach. The approach is great useful to the expatriate who want to stay in the foreign country for more than 2 months (Mendenhall, Dunbar, and Oddou, 1987). If the individual is going to a different host culture and the expected degree of interaction is high, the immersion approach is a suitable training method. In the study, sensitivity training and simulations belong to the immersion approach. From the results, we know that most of the corporations used the information giving approach to train their expatriates. To help them adapt to the different culture easily, cross-culture skills might be the next considerations for the corporations.

Intercultural business skills, cultural shock management, life-style adjustment, host-country daily living issues, local customs and etiquette, area studies, and language learning strategies topics are useful in the cultural adjustment process (Blocklyn, 1989 ; Black,Gregersen, and Mendenhall, 1992; Briscoe, 1995; Harris and Moran, 1996). Table 4 shows the content of cross-cultural training course. The first five courses includes area studies, cultural awareness, business related skills, language ability, and technical competence. It quite covered the content that mentioned from the previous researches. Since Families' adjustments and supports is one of the most important

factors for the successful expatriation (Black and Gregersen, 1991; Harris, 1989; Tung, 1987), the course for family adjustment should get attention in the HR department.

Table 3. Cross-cultural training methods

Training methods	Percentage(%)
Area Briefings	23
Books	16
Lectures	15
Films	11
Case Studies	13
Culture Assimilators	8
Sensitivity Training	5
Role Plays	2
Simulations	2
Others	5

Table 4. Content of cross-cultural training course

Content of the courses	Percentage(%)
Area studies	94.1
Cultural awareness	76.5
Business related skill	70.6
Language ability	70.6
Technical competence	64.7
Cross-culture communication	58.8
International manner	52.9
Stress management	52.9
A sense for politics	41.2
Field trip	41.2
Family orientation	17.6

Table 5 shows the problems with implementing cross-culture training. The first four difficulties that the companies running the cross cultural training programs are: the trainers who have significant international background and experience are insufficiency; lack of time because of the immediacy or the need for the manager overseas; not enough trainees to have the class; training programs are easy to be devised.

Table 5. Problems with implementing cross-cultural training

Problems	Percentage(%)
Lack of trainers who have significant international background and experience.	26.2
Lack of time because of the immediacy of the need for the manager overseas.	23.8
Small number of expatriates, insufficient to form a class.	14.3
Training programs are not easy to be devised.	11.9
There are doubts about the need for such specialized.	9.5
The belief that cross-cultural training programs are not effective.	9.5
The shortage of budget expenditure for cross-cultural training.	4.8

Table 6 shows the reasons for not implementing cross-cultural training. The first four reasons for the companies that didn't have the cross cultural training programs are: the trend towards employment of local nationals; the

temporary nature of many such assignments; there are doubts about the need for such specialized, and there is a belief that the competencies of expatriates are enough to complete the assignments.

Table 6. Reasons for not implementing cross-cultural training

Reasons for not implementing	Percentage(%)
The trend towards employment of local nationals.	16.85
The temporary nature of many such assignments.	13.48
There are doubts about the need for such specialized.	13.48
There is a belief that the competencies of expatriates are enough to complete the assignments.	13.48
The dimensions needed for successful acculturation are not well enough to known to devise sound training programs	10.11
Lack of time because of the immediacy of the need for the manager overseas.	8.99
The shortage of budget expenditure for cross-cultural training.	6.74
The trainers who have significant international background and experience are insufficiency.	5.62
The belief that cross-cultural training programs are not effective.	2.25
Others	8.99

Conclusions

The results show that nearly one third of the corporations offered cross-cultural training program to the expatriate. The length of training for 93.7% of the corporations is less than 3 days. Most of the training methods they used belong to the information giving approach. It seems that the approach did not adjust by the length of stay. Affective and Immersion approaches should be used to increase the degrees of integration. Doubts about the need for cross-cultural training programs are one of the major reasons for the corporations that did not offer the programs. From the previous research (Tung, 1982; Conway, 1984), we know that the cross-cultural training reduced that rate of failure expatriation. Hopefully, 35.9% of the corporations that are not implementing cross-cultural training will consider such training in the future. As 76.9% of the respondents thought cross-cultural training is a worthy investment, the cross-cultural training will get much more attention in Taiwan.

The empirical study of cross-cultural training in Taiwan is in its infancy. Few reported studies offer recommendations. Existing research consists of descriptions of the training program or reports on the program from the expatriate's point of view. Cross-cultural training should be highly valued as a means of making the enterprise increase its competitiveness in the global market.

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